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School Life



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FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Office of Education



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CONTENTS FOR January 1951

Volume 33

Number 4

Cover photograph, appropriate to this season of the year, was taken by George Bailey, press photographer for the Louisville Courier-Journal. The photograph was selected as a prize winner in The Book of Knowledge First Annual Competition for Press Photographers sponsored by The Grolier Society, 2 West 45th Street, New York 19, N. Y. The theme of the first-year competition was "America's Children Today."

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School Life Spotlight

" . . . The national security demands it and the democratic principle of equal educational opportunity supports it . . ." — p. 50

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"The responsibility of Government to protect the public interest at all times is a clearly recognized principle, particularly so when a new frontier is being opened . . ." — p. 51

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" . . . And this is but a part—a very important part—of a total integrated 12-year educational program directed toward life adjustment for every youth." — p. 54

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" . . . The teacher must deal wisely with every situation involving human relationships during the school day . . ." — p. 56

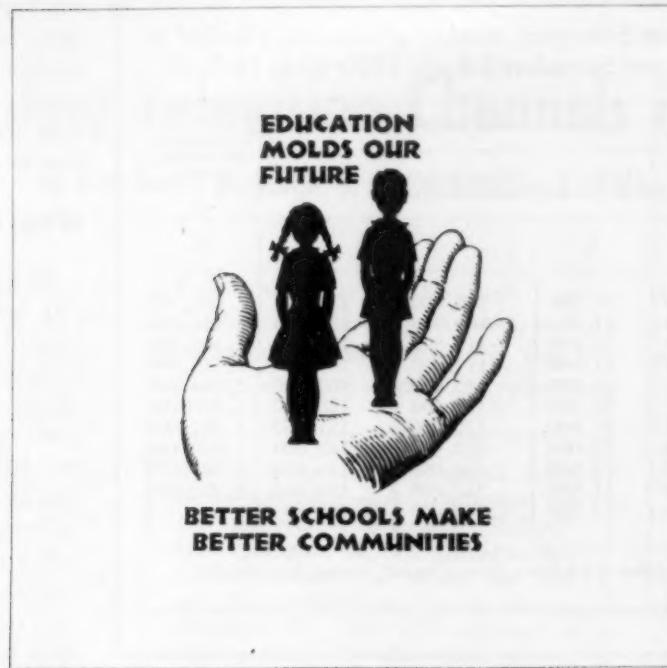
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" . . . Rarely does some one in authority settle a problem by 'laying down the law.' . . ." — p. 57

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" . . . You can't do today's job with yesterday's tools and be in business tomorrow." — p. 61

THE Office of Education was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."



Teacher Situation Critical—What Can Be Done?

by W. Earl Armstrong, Associate Chief for Teacher Education

TEACHER-WISE, the Nation is in relatively worse condition this year than it was in 1941. The situation today differs from conditions that prevailed before World War II in several respects:

1. The teaching profession suffered losses between 1940 and 1945 from which it has not fully recovered. Research studies of the Office of Education, National Education Association, and other groups estimate that over and above the usual turn-over approximately 300,000 teachers left the profession between 1939 and 1945. About 85,000 of these went to the armed forces. The others left the teaching field to go into war-related work or into business. Few of these have returned to the profession. This deficit has never been fully made up.

Only a trickle of teachers graduated from the Nation's colleges and universities the first year after World War II. By 1947 the normal supply had still not begun to flow. In 1948 the supply of teachers coming from institutions of higher education was, for the first time since 1941, equal to the 1941 supply. In spite of the great increase in college and university enrollment in the postwar period, not until 1949 and 1950 were our higher education institutions able to turn out more teachers than they prepared for the schools in 1941.

2. There is greater competition between teaching and other occupations today than there was before World War II. In the years before World War II teaching was something of a preferred occupation. It provided sure income, even though the salary was small. This was perhaps the major reason why the percentage of the total college enrollment preparing for teaching was much higher before than after World War II. There was a slight shift toward the teaching profession among college students in 1949 and 1950, but that gain will likely be wiped out quickly by the present military crisis. If the present emergency continues for any length of time, schools may find themselves in competition with the military for needed teachers. Instructors will be needed to fill demands of the highly developed education and information services which the armed services operate.

3. The increased birth rate, which began during World War II and has continued in postwar years, has already created a greater demand for teachers, one that will rise a great deal more during the next decade. The number of births climbed approximately 40 percent by 1948 over 1941. The high level has not yet subsided. It is conservatively estimated that the public and

private elementary schools will reach a peak enrollment of 29,500,000 by 1957, as compared with 20,300,000 in 1947. Public and private high schools are expected by 1957 to enroll 7,300,000, as compared with 6,500,000 in 1947.

Assuming that the 10,000,000 additional boys and girls in elementary and secondary schools by 1957 will be taught in classes of 30 pupils each, the need for teachers in 1957 will be greater than it was in 1947 by 330,000. This is about one-third of the present total number of elementary and secondary school teachers in the United States. These facts ignore the need for college teachers, which will increase unless college enrollments are reduced by military service induction.

4. There is a greater imbalance in the supply of teachers today than there was in 1941. In 1941, for example, there were approximately 35,000 elementary school teachers and 40,000 secondary school teachers prepared by colleges and universities. By 1950 the balance had shifted so that 36,000 elementary school teachers and 85,000 secondary school teachers were prepared by colleges and universities. Normally the demand is for about twice as many elementary as secondary school teachers.

5. It is doubtful whether there are as

Estimated Change in Enrollment and Estimated Number of Teachers Needed in Public and Nonpublic Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1950-51 to 1959-60¹

School year ending	Change in enrollment from previous year	Number of new teachers needed for			Total number of teachers needed
		Increased enrollment ²	Normal 10 percent turn-over	Total	
1	2	3	4	5	6
1950-51.....	+828,000	28,000	106,000	134,000	1,085,000
1951-52.....	+808,000	27,000	109,000	136,000	1,112,000
1952-53.....	+1,691,000	56,000	111,000	167,000	1,168,000
1953-54.....	+1,534,000	51,000	117,000	168,000	1,219,000
1954-55.....	+1,348,000	45,000	122,000	167,000	1,264,000
1955-56.....	+950,000	32,000	126,000	158,000	1,296,000
1956-57.....	+625,000	21,000	130,000	151,000	1,317,000
1957-58.....	+402,000	13,000	132,000	145,000	1,330,000
1958-59.....	-81,000	-3,000	133,000	130,000	1,327,000
1959-60.....	+33,000	1,000	133,000	134,000	1,328,000
Total.....	+8,138,000	271,000	1,219,000	1,490,000	

¹ Compiled by Research and Statistical Service, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Sept. 26, 1950.

² Estimated at the rate of 30 pupils per teacher.

NOTE: The foregoing estimates on number of new teachers needed do not make allowance for a larger than normal turn-over due to partial or total mobilization.

many "reserves" available in 1950 as there were in 1941. No one knows the exact number of persons who are certificated to teach each year that never actually teach. The number is considerable. There are also many women who teach for 2 or 3 years and then drop out. These two groups constitute a potential teacher reserve. This reserve is believed to be smaller today than it was in 1941, for a number of reasons. In 1941 the Nation was emerging from a long depression. During the late 30's many persons who met minimum teacher certification requirements were unable to secure employment. They went into potential reserve. Scarcity of teachers since the close of World War II has prevented the building up of a similar reserve. Those prepared for teaching before 1941 and not actually employed were recruited between 1941 and 1948. Today there is no substantial backlog of fully qualified teachers available to the profession. Lack of such a reserve could be a greater shock to the profession than that felt during World War II when teachers were so much in demand.

6. There is a very definite shortage of educational administrators and supervisors today. It takes longer to prepare administrators and supervisors than it does to prepare teachers. Thousands of young men who might ordinarily have been prepared in educational administration during the early 40's were in service or otherwise occupied during World War II. Furthermore, most graduate schools were closed during the war period. As a result, thousands of young men were lost to the profession. They are, therefore, not available to succeed to positions vacated by those who transfer or are retired. Larger numbers of children in school emphasize the need for additional numbers of supervisors and administrators today and in the years ahead.

7. Standards for beginning teachers are being raised in many States. Some States that previously required 2 years of college work for beginning teachers in the elementary school have raised their requirements to 3 years of college preparation. Others have moved from 3 to 4 years of college work as an elementary school teach-

ing requirement. Nearly all States now require secondary school teachers to hold bachelor's degrees. As society places greater demands upon teachers, so the various States in turn require greater preparation to meet society's demands.

What Can Be Done About It?

The present threat to our national security may continue for several years. In view of this fact, it would seem wise to keep each level of the school system strong at all times. The national security demands it and the democratic principle of equal educational opportunity supports it. During this period it is necessary that schools and colleges not only be as good as usual but better than usual if they are to meet the special demands made upon them. To insure strong school and college programs to meet both civilian and military needs in a world of uncertainty, serious consideration could well be given the following:

1. The supplementing of teachers' salaries at all levels, by special appropriation or other provision, so as to make teaching positions sufficiently attractive financially to discourage teachers from shifting to higher-paying types of employment frequently considered more critical.

2. Establishing and extending present programs for the conversion of persons prepared for secondary school teaching into elementary school teachers.

3. Reexamining the curricula for the preparation of elementary and secondary school teachers for the purpose of identifying and incorporating the common elements in both. This might result in a curriculum which, with minor adjustments, would prepare a teacher for service at either the elementary or secondary school level.

4. Expanding the services of colleges and universities to include the provision of leadership for in-service teacher education programs in the schools within a reasonable service area.

At the A.A.S.A. in Atlantic City

PLAN TO VISIT the Office of Education exhibit booth at the Convention of the American Association of School Administrators to be held in Atlantic City, N. J., February 17 to 22, 1951. The Office of Education Booth will be located in Spaces F-16 and F-18.

We shall look forward to seeing you.

Safeguarding Television Channels for Education

by Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education

APPEAR BEFORE this Commission as Commissioner of Education in the Office of Education in the Federal Security Agency to encourage the safeguarding of the access of education to broadcasting opportunities in the television field.

In this matter, the Federal Communications Commission and the Office of Education have certain closely similar concerns and share a common purpose. Both the Commission and the Office of Education recognize that the Government has responsibilities for safeguarding and promoting the public interest in our respective fields. I feel, therefore, that I do not appear before you under the necessity of pleading a cause which is alien to your concerns.

In its January 16, 1945, report, the Commission guaranteed that the applications of educational institutions for television licenses would be treated "on an equal basis with applications from noneducational applicants." At that time, the Commission felt unready to reserve a television band for educational use because there seemed to be insufficient evidence of an effective interest in the use of television by educational institutions and systems. My purpose in appearing today is to suggest that that conclusion should be reexamined.

The responsibility of Government to protect the public interest at all times is a clearly recognized principle, particularly so when a new frontier is being opened. The shameless exploitation of natural resources in the opening of the Great West has demonstrated the result of governmental failure to protect the public interest. Mountain ranges denuded of timber and the blank openings of abandoned mines are mute evidence leading us in a later day to wish that governmental action had earlier exhibited more foresight.

Likewise, the concern of the National Government in protecting and furthering the cause of education goes back to our national beginnings. Even before the Constitution of the United States of America had been written, the precedent was set. In opening the Northwest Territory, the Congress of the Confederation adopted an

ordinance which reserved part of the public lands for educational purposes, thereby establishing a precedent which was followed without deviation in the subsequent

BECAUSE of the widespread interest in television and its potential use for educational purposes, **SCHOOL LIFE** presents in full Commissioner McGrath's testimony before the Federal Communications Commission on November 27, 1950. Presentation of this testimony by the Commissioner marked the opening of hearings before the FCC, during which many educational organizations and leaders urged the setting aside of frequency allocations for educational television use in the years ahead.

admission of every one of the States into the Union. There is, of course, a difference between setting aside capital assets such as land to endow education and reserving channels of communication for use by educational institutions and systems; but both actions rest on the same fundamental notion that the public interest is best served when the need of the people for universal access to good education guides governmental action.

Assured of Access

The point can be sharpened further. Education depends upon communication. Thoughts and ideas, the material of education, have to be transmitted and disseminated. In an earlier day, when word-of-mouth communication to a visible audience was the sole means of reaching a circle of listeners, the Bill of Rights forbade the Federal Government to abridge the freedom of assembly or of speech. With the broadcasting of sound, freedom of assembly became less important educationally and freedom of speech more important; freedom of access to the radio became essential to the effective exercise of the right to freedom of speech. If the purpose of democracy, to secure the universal enlightenment of its members, is to be served, education must, at all times, be assured of access to

the means of mass communication. This principle must be recognized in the field of television.

The highly restricted number of channels available for television emphasizes the necessity of forehanded action. For example, it is unnecessary for the Government to reserve certain printing presses for educational use because more presses may always be put into operation. Education is assured of access to the use of the printed word because there is no limit to the number of presses which may operate. But if education's right of access to every means of communication is to be recognized and applied in the field of television, Government action must now reserve opportunity for education because there are only 12 channels in the very high frequency band. In the field of sound broadcasting, the Federal Communications Commission has already recognized the principle I am stressing here. It is my hope that the Commission will find some way of recognizing and safeguarding the need, and hence the right, of the public to have access to television broadcasting facilities for education.

The marked development in the field of audio-visual aids the past quarter century has witnessed is eloquent evidence that education does move. A steady stream of highly effective educational motion pictures is now being produced, and is being widely used at all instructional levels from kindergarten through the graduate school. Filmstrips, with and without accompanying recordings, offer a wide variety of instructional content. These devices combine photographically accurate visual representation with animation to add living reality, plus verbal content, sound effects, and music. And since learning is closely dependent upon effort, which in turn is closely associated with interest, the use of audio-visual aids has become standard practice in our schools and colleges. Each successive advance in technology, from the lantern slide to sound-on-film, has won its way into the teaching process. I know of

(Continued on page 58)

Toward Life Adjustment Through "Special Education"

by Elise H. Martens, Chief, Exceptional Children and Youth
Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools

SOMETIMES only an emergency reveals untapped resources through which urgent needs can be met. During World War II the Army and the Navy showed what it was possible to do, through intensive special training units, in teaching illiterate and slow-learning young people to become fit members of the military forces. Wartime industries gave a clear demonstration of what physically handicapped workers could accomplish on the production line. Civilian employers found in handicapped persons a sorely needed supply of manpower.

Today a similar situation faces us. Manpower shortage is threatening again. Lowering the standards of physical and mental efficiency for entry into the armed forces has been suggested. Industry, business, and professions are all calling for men and women with the right kind of preparation and—what is even more important—with the right attitudes of citizenship and service.

What are the schools—specifically *high schools*—doing to meet such demands? What are they doing particularly about the boys and girls who are handicapped? How are *these* being prepared to take their places in the world's work as citizens in a democratic society? What the high schools are doing today will help to determine what their students *can* do tomorrow.

The Place of "Special Education"

There was a time 25 or 30 years ago when provisions made for the adjustment of high-school programs to meet the requirements of handicapped pupils were really "special." While the need was becoming fairly well recognized at that time in elementary schools, it was unusual to find special adjustments made on the high-school level for students with serious mental limitations, crippling conditions, or other marked deviation from what is supposed to be normal.

Today "special education" is Nationwide and almost world-wide in scope. It has come to be a part—in many communities an *indispensable* part—of the total ele-

mentary and secondary school program. It is not in any sense of the word an auxiliary service appended to the program, but part and parcel of it. To be sure, it has not reached nearly all the children who need it. Many boys and girls with seriously defective sight or hearing, crippling conditions, mental retardation, or severe speech defects are still struggling along as best they can or are dropping out of school because nothing is done to help them. Neither do young people with special talents or extremely high intellectual abilities find the encouragement and help they need. But the concern for *all* exceptional children and young people is growing, and, as that concern becomes deeper, programs become more flexible in an increasing number of schools.

In the 10-year period between 1938 and 1948, the number of exceptional pupils enrolled for some form of "special education" in high schools almost doubled. In the latter year the total number so reported by city school systems was 50,486, and the number of cities (of all sizes) reporting such provision at least for a minimum number of pupils was 325. Reports from individual cities in the past 3 years would indicate that by 1951 these figures have still further materially increased. Yet, according to conservative figures, the estimated total number of exceptional pupils that *should* be so served is almost 10 times the number now receiving the special help they need.

These developments are quite in accord with the repeated emphasis that has been placed upon the need of education for all American youth. Statistical studies show all too clearly that the goal is far from being realized. I quote from one of the most recent studies, entitled *Holding Power and Size of High Schools*:¹ "Well over half of all youth either do not enter high school or drop out before graduation"; and again "Two of every five boys and girls drop out *after* entering high school." Intellectual limitations, physical disabilities, and emotional frustration or disturbance are among the logical causes for leaving school. *The only way to combat them is to provide the "special" educational services the boy or the girl needs.*

Life Adjustment Education

"Special education" in elementary schools has attained middle age. It is more than 50 years old, and it has grown steadily from year to year. In secondary schools its growth has had a real impetus in recent years through introduction of the concept of "life adjustment education." This concept is proving a potent influence in bringing about greater flexibility in traditional high-school programs and greater emphasis upon the need of providing "special" educational services for youth who have serious mental, physical, or emotional problems. For such children, "life adjustment education" and "special education" have much in common. Both would offer to the blind, the deaf, the crippled, the mentally retarded, the mentally gifted, and those with serious personality maladjustments the opportunities of a school program tailor-made to fit them for adult living.

The content of a recent report on *Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School?* gives excellent examples of how developments in special education for exceptional children and youth fit into the program

Acknowledgment is made to the following persons and sources of information on programs described in this article: Herman R. Goldberg, Rochester, N. Y.; Arthur S. Hill, Des Moines, Iowa; Leon Mones, Newark, N. J.; Jeanette Riker, Indianapolis, Ind.; Leo Cain, Flora Daly, and Jerome Rothstein, San Francisco State College, California; and Office of Education Circular, No. 269, 1950, on "Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School?"

¹ *Holding Power and Size of High Schools*, Office of Education Circular No. 322, 1950, p. 19.

for life adjustment education, and how the two are inextricably interwoven. Limited intellectual ability, physical handicaps, and emotional instability are cited again and again in this report as causes for drop-outs. What some schools are reported as doing to counteract these through special education is encouraging.

Oklahoma City reports the inauguration of vocational training programs for semi-skilled occupations. Some boys who do not have the ability to become expert auto mechanics are taught simpler operations that are within their capacity and that at the same time satisfy their urge for mechanical activity.

Richmond, Va., reports a high-school special class for pupils with I. Q. below 80, where students have an opportunity to study the practical problems involved in citizenship, home life, and in getting and holding a job. When the class was organized, it was thought that the pupils would be leaving school after 1 year of such a program, but they surprised everybody by wanting to stay on for further work!

Newark, N. J., reports that the designation of high-school programs and diplomas by curriculum has been eliminated. Each pupil's progress is studied as he goes on from term to term, and adjustment is made as necessary. A number of special courses and classes for pupils with special problems are maintained. "These boys and girls take full part in our school life, in the orchestra, the clubs, and all the extra-class-

room activities," writes the principal of one of Newark's junior high schools in describing the program for the mentally retarded. "They are never made to feel unwanted or rejected. . . . They grow through the social life of the school and contribute to the social life." A similar program has been begun to a limited extent on the senior high-school level.

Some Other Tailor-Made Programs

In September 1950, more detailed reports came from a number of other cities. Rochester, N. Y., reported at the beginning of the school year that 886 boys and girls were receiving specialized educational services in regular high schools. More than half of these were pupils with serious speech defects—and who but a stutterer or a lisper knows the embarrassment and frustration that result from such a handicap! But there were also students with crippling conditions, hearing defects, emotional disturbances, and serious intellectual limitations. In addition, 142 boys were enrolled in a special trade school where academic requirements and tradition are thrown to the winds, and the curriculum is entirely reframed in terms of the practicalities of life.

The Director of Special Education in Rochester reports also that some mentally retarded girls coming from special classes in elementary schools are eligible for a high-school program in either of two secondary schools. The curriculum includes practical English, community civics, business arith-

metic, and job techniques looking toward job placement. Each girl spends alternately 4 weeks in industry and 4 weeks at school, the goal being to have her try out five different types of employment before she leaves high school. The minimum wage is paid. Some of the employment opportunities that have been open to the girls are in packing plants, cafeterias, laundries, hospitals, retail stores, candy kitchens, and private homes. The teacher of the group is assigned half time to guidance functions and placement work with industry, in order to help bring about the best possible adjustment on the part of the girls.

Indianapolis reported, at the beginning of this school year, 395 handicapped pupils enrolled in special classes in junior high school and 309 in 4-year high schools. These include the hard of hearing, the partially seeing, delicate children, crippled, speech defective, and mentally retarded pupils with intelligence quotients from about 50 to 75. The special educational services are maintained throughout the high-school years. Physically handicapped pupils in special classes follow the same curriculum as do other children, with a selection of subject fields suited to their abilities and with special program adjustments and equipment as each physical handicap requires.

For the mentally retarded, curriculum modifications place emphasis upon home and community living, occupational experiences, and civic obligations. The extra-class activities of the school are open to these pupils as their interests suggest. Those who continue the work of the special classes for the entire period of high school receive a certificate of graduation.

In Des Moines, Iowa, as of September 1950, there were 409 mentally retarded pupils enrolled in special classes in junior high school and the first year of senior high school. A special school for the physically handicapped offers junior high-school work for the crippled, delicate, and partially seeing. High-school pupils who are home-bound because of a physical disability carry on their school work by means of a two-way telephone service or bedside instruction.

During the last year of junior high school, mentally retarded pupils are given the benefit of guidance and counseling, and also the assistance of the State Vocational Rehabilitation Service. Most of them leave school for suitable employment at the end of the



Getting ready for a job with the neighborhood grocer. Courtesy, Detroit, Mich., Public Schools.

first year of senior high school. However, some remain through the twelfth year, and full credit is given for the special work they have taken, no qualifying statement appearing on their diplomas.

A Research Project in Progress

In all of the cities named and in scores of others, both large and small, a sincere effort is being made to meet the life needs of at least some of the children and young people who are seriously different or exceptional. Even in a few cities of 10 to 25 thousand population one finds *something* being done for one or more exceptional pupils who need an adjusted high-school program. The fundamental problem that they all must solve, individually or together, is: What kind of curriculum experiences in secondary schools will help these young people to achieve optimum life adjustment?

One project, designed to answer this question for the seriously retarded, was set up at San Francisco State College in March 1950 and is planned to run for 2 consecutive years. Necessary funds have been provided by the Rosenberg Foundation. Those responsible for the project define its major objectives as follows:

To develop, in secondary school situations, curriculum materials appropriate to the needs, capacities, and interests of mentally retarded students.

To observe and record data relating to behavior adjustment of these students.

To evaluate the extent to which satisfactory adjustment has been attained through the use of curriculum materials and experiences.

The study involves approximately 175 students and 15 classroom teachers in 10 secondary schools located in 6 geographical areas of the State. Urban and rural centers are included. Junior and senior high schools in high and low socio-economic districts are represented, and even a community college is in the group.

The students enrolled for the study range from 13 to 18 years in chronological age and from approximately 50 to 75 in intelligence quotient. In 8 of the 10 schools, special classes are operating on plans which provide varying degrees of segregation from and association with other students in regular classes. In the other two schools, the mentally retarded students will remain en-

tirely in regular classes, with additional counseling and curriculum adjustment within the class.

A common body of information as to mental, physical, social, and educational development of the pupils is being assembled. A variety of curriculum experiences is being developed in terms of local school and community needs. In evaluating pupil development and adjustment over the period of the study, use will be made of observation and anecdotal records, sociograms, case studies, achievement tests, intelligence tests, and social maturity ratings. A special advisory committee is working with the project staff.

It is expected that the findings will be reported in two sections: (1) A descriptive analysis of pupil adjustment effected under a specific training program; (2) suggestions as to curriculum experiences, classroom organization, and administrative procedures appropriate to the needs of mentally retarded students in secondary schools. The objective of the entire study is to help point the way toward the preparation of the mentally retarded to become efficient workers and socially minded citizens and homemakers.

Need for Continuing Program

Such research projects as this are needed in every area of "special education" and for every group of exceptional youth, whether physically handicapped, mentally handicapped, emotionally disturbed, or intellectually gifted. Yet it would be folly to think that even the best of programs in high school and the most tireless efforts in working with adolescents could compensate for the lack of appropriate early education. "Get them young" is, from an educational point of view, particularly important for the blind and the deaf and the otherwise handicapped child; for thus one can promote a sense of social well-being, prevent undesirable attitudes and mannerisms peculiar to the handicap, and build a firm foundation for the growth and development which is to follow. A continuing program of well-planned tailor-made "special education" from early childhood through the high-school years is, for exceptional children and youth, the only basis for successful adult living. And this is but a part—a very important part—of a total integrated 12-year educational program directed toward life adjustment for every youth.

Off the Rostrum— Off the Press

"... Young citizens need to develop the habit of keeping informed, of weighing evidence, and of reaching decisions in the light of such evidence. . . ."

—Howard R. Anderson, Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, in address before the National Council for the Social Studies, Minneapolis, Minn., November 23, 1950.

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"The task we face is a difficult one—to strike a proper balance between normal education and emergency training—to provide adequate services for defense, without endangering that which we are trying to defend. . . ."

—Henry H. Armsby, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, in address before the Division of Engineering, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, November 14, 1950, in Washington, D. C.

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"... We wish to have assurance that the dentist is not a mere silversmith or goldsmith. In short, we want him to recognize that he is dealing with a human being; that he treats disease and its results; that by intelligent action he can help prevent disease or retard or stop the progress of disease; that by unintelligent action he may be the means of initiating a pathologic process. . . ."

—Lloyd E. Blauch, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, in paper read at the University of Oregon Dental School Seminar on Dental Teaching, Portland, Oreg., September 11–14, 1950.

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"The development of counseling skills in increasing numbers of the faculty should, in the long run, result in better instruction and a more vital institutional attitude. . . ."

—Willard W. Blaesser, Division of Higher Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, in address at Conference on General Education, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Fla., November 20–22, 1950.

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"The great objective of conservation education is the betterment of human welfare through the development of social groups and individual citizens with attitudes, habits, and patterns of behavior that make conservation 'a way of living.' . . ."

—Halene Hatcher, Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools, Office of Education, Federal Se-

(Continued on page 61)

Acts of the 81st Congress—Second Session Relating to Education

by Ward W. Keeseker, Specialist in School Legislation

WHILE THE responsibility for administering and supporting education in the United States is principally a State and local function, an increasing number of legislative measures affecting education are introduced in each session of the Congress. Although comparatively few of these proposals become law, they testify to the active national interest in education.

Presented here is a résumé of outstanding provisions of the principal acts of the Eighty-first Congress, second session, which relate to education. No attempt is made to include all operative provisions of the acts reported or to include those enactments which may relate to education only indirectly.

Copies of the Public Laws reviewed in this article may, as a rule, be obtained by writing to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

National Survey of School Building Facilities

Public Law 815 (approved 9/23/50).—Title I of this act authorizes an appropriation of \$3,000,000 to assist the States to inventory their existing school facilities, to survey their needs for the construction of additional facilities in relation to distribution of school population, to develop State plans for school construction programs, and to study the adequacy of State and local resources available to meet school facility requirements.

The administration of this title is vested in the United States Commissioner of Education who shall approve any application for funds for carrying out the purposes above stated, "if such application—

"(1) designates the State educational agency . . . as the sole agency for carrying out such purposes;
"(2) provides for making an inventory and survey . . . containing information

requested by the Commissioner, and for developing a State program [for school construction] . . .

"(3) provides that the State educational agency will make such reports, in such form, and containing such information as the Commissioner may from time to time reasonably require, and, to assure verification of such reports, give the Commissioner, upon request, access to the records upon which such information is based."

Of the sums appropriated pursuant to title I, \$150,000 shall be allotted by the Commissioner to the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands according to their respective needs and upon the basis of agreements made with their respective chief educational authorities, and the remainder shall be allotted to the States in the same proportions as their respective school-age populations bear to the total school-age population of such other States, except that the allotment to any State shall not be less than \$10,000. States and Territories are required to match Federal funds on a 50-50 basis for carrying out the purposes of title I.

Education in Areas Affected by Federal Activities

Federal Funds for Constructing School Building Facilities, Public Law 815 (approved Sept. 23, 1950).—Title II of this act authorizes the use of Federal funds to assist local school agencies in bearing the cost of constructing school facilities where Federal activities have increased the need for school buildings.

This title includes specific conditions under which aid for school facilities are available in behalf of children residing on Federal property, and/or children of Federal employees, and children whose attendance otherwise results from Federal activities. The conditions upon which Federal assistance may be granted are based principally

upon the number and percentage increase of pupils in average daily attendance. Under certain conditions school districts, which have provided school facilities for children for whose education contributions are provided in the act, may be entitled to reimbursement from the Federal Government.

In case of children who reside on Federal property, if no State or local tax revenues may be expended for free public education; or, if in the judgment of the Commissioner, after he has consulted with the appropriate State educational agency, no local school district is able to provide suitable free public education for such children, then the Commissioner shall make such arrangements for constructing or otherwise providing the necessary school facilities for such children.

In the administration of title II of this act the Commissioner of Education may, pursuant to proper agreement with another appropriate Federal agency, "utilize the facilities and services" of any Federal agency and may delegate the performance of any of his functions to any officer of such agency.

All applications for school facilities assistance under this title shall be submitted by the local school districts through their appropriate State educational agency and filed with the Commissioner of Education prior to July 1, 1952.

In order to carry out the provisions of Public Law 815, the Congress appropriated (Public Law 843) \$24,500,000, and "in addition contracts may be entered into not to exceed \$25,000,000." Out of the first-mentioned amount, \$3,000,000 has been budgeted for a Nation-wide survey of public elementary and secondary school building facilities. The balance of the appropriation plus the contract authority has been budgeted for school construction in federally affected areas.

(Continued on page 60)

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Can Children and Youth Learn It?

In the Elementary School

by Wilhelmina Hill, Specialist in Social Science, and Helen K. Mackintosh,
Chief, Instructional Problems—Elementary

CAN THE Universal Declaration of Human Rights have any meaning for children of elementary school age? The answer is, "Yes," but success in teaching about this great human document depends upon each individual teacher for whom it must have a personal meaning. It is the teacher's responsibility to help children *experience* rather than merely *verbalize about* human rights. Every day in every classroom there are opportunities for teacher and children to realize good human relations, provided the teacher recognizes such situations and uses them wisely.

Young children of primary school age are usually more dependent upon the teacher or parents than older children and take their behavior cues from the attitudes of grown-ups. It is therefore highly important that adults show that they value every child and respect his rights as an individual.

In the early school years the teacher will keep in mind those articles in the Declaration that stress the rights of the individual (1) as a person, (2) as a pupil, and (3) as a member of a family group. She can give emphasis to such activities as getting along together in the classroom when children use toys and materials. If Bobbie in the kindergarten has the toy truck first, does Bill have the right to take it because he wants it? Does Bobbie have the right to keep the truck for a whole play period, if there is only one truck in the room? Does first-grade Mary have the right to out-talk children in the group who do not think as quickly as she does? Does June in the third grade have the right to loiter on the way home from school so that she is an hour late reaching home, while her

mother, who has a new baby, is worried because she does not arrive? These are the kinds of problems that may be worked out with children individually or with their group, depending upon the situation. The teacher must deal wisely with every situation involving human relationships during the school day. Then at some point, she can tie together a number of such experiences as those described and help children to generalize with regard to human rights.

In intermediate and upper grades, children should become acquainted with the actual document of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. They may see it in the form of a poster, pamphlet, or magazine reproduction, which is displayed and to which attention is called when an appropriate situation arises that is meaningful to the children themselves.

Pupils may learn about some of the problems and difficulties encountered in writing a Declaration which would have a common meaning to the people of the world. Eleanor Roosevelt has pointed out some of the language difficulties and other problems, such as differences in cultural background and customs, encountered by the Commission on Human Rights, of which she is chairman. Children in the intermediate and upper grades may listen to a brief cutting from a record or recording on the Declaration and be asked what the words mean to them in terms of experiences they have had; what they would mean to a boy or girl in Liberia, in the Philippines, or in France. A recording may be made of their discussion, and then be played back for further discussion.

While it is desirable that pupils become familiar with the Declaration as a whole,

the first study of its articles might well be of those for which they have a basis of understanding through their own experiences. Boys and girls can understand article 17 concerning property rights and article 24 about the right to rest and leisure. More mature pupils may study the meaning and application of such articles as 15 about the right to a nationality, and 29 on duties to the community in which human rights are accepted as belonging to everyone. Does money left lying on a desk or dropped on the cloakroom floor belong to the finder? Does Dad, who works in an industrial plant, get two weeks' vacation with pay so the family can take a trip together? Are children entitled to the fun of smashing schoolhouse windows at Hallowe'en? Though every child born in this country is a citizen of the United States, how many nationality groups are represented in his family tree?

Such questions should stimulate the teacher to take an inventory of her school day to see how many situations offer the opportunity to point up the very heart of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a part of everyday living.



Human Rights Learn Its Meaning?

{ It would be very helpful if young people now in school could study the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as it was accepted by the General Assembly in 1948 in Paris. This would give them an idea of what the peoples of the world would like to see as an ultimate goal in human rights and freedoms, and would therefore point up to them what must be accomplished at home in order to be in line with world thinking.

Teacher Roosevelt

In the Secondary School

by Howard Cummings, Specialist in Government and Economics, and
Howard Anderson, Chief, Instructional Problems—Secondary

ON DECEMBER 19, 1948, the General Assembly of the United Nations passed and proclaimed a *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. The spirit of the declaration is familiar to Americans, but a study of the document is necessary to understand the full scope of the subjects with which it deals. Moreover, there is always the problem of translating principles which are accepted into behavior consistent with these principles. This problem is being dealt with daily in the high schools of America. In order to make clear how experiences in the everyday life of pupils may be used as a basis for developing the principles set forth in the new declaration let us take a look at Central High School.

The pupils at Central High School are divided into cliques. Membership in these groups is by invitation, and many pupils are left out. The principal has asked the pupils to give up the practice of organizing exclusive clubs and secret societies. He holds that such clubs contribute little to the life of the school, and points out that they make many pupils unhappy. The club members refuse to give up their societies. This is a free country, they reply. Freedom means that one has the right to choose his friends and to carry on activities with them so long as the public order is not disturbed. In the controversy at Central High two human rights are involved: Freedom of association and the right to the pursuit of happiness. The principal and the pupils are not in agreement as to the relative importance of each.

This is not the only issue in human rights which is debated at Central High. Pupils must eat lunch at the school cafeteria and they may not leave the building and grounds

during the lunch hour. This arrangement is for their own protection says the principal. The neighborhood lunchrooms are insanitary, and if students use their cars in driving to lunch there is danger of serious accidents. But many pupils ignore this line of reasoning and argue that one should be free to choose his eating place.

There is no end to the list of questions which are discussed: Should every pupil be required to take certain courses? Do seniors have the right to special privileges? Should sophomores have the right to haze freshmen? Should school parties be so expensive that many pupils cannot attend? Does a good athlete have a right to refuse to play on the school team if he wants to spend the time taking private music lessons?

Central High School pupils have a great deal of freedom but problems relating to the rights and duties are not solved automatically by the free atmosphere of the school. Teachers and pupils try to think through the problems which arise and find a solution. The ideal solution is one where all agree. Compromises are made if consensus cannot be reached. Rarely does some one in authority settle a problem by "laying down the law." Less rarely do the pupils "fight it out" in open conflict. The general principle upon which the school operates has never been stated. If it were, it would read something like article 29, section 2, of *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*:

"Everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements

of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society."

In America some human rights have been established so long that the people who enjoy them do not realize that they were gained after a long struggle. Central High School is built upon the principles stated in article 26 of the declaration which states: "Everyone has the right to education . . . technical and professional education shall be made generally available . . . education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality. . ." Education in America was not always free. The decision to provide free elementary education was made only about a hundred years ago. American communities have gone beyond the call of the declaration, which asks for free education "at least in the elementary fundamental stages." In the United States, high school and, in some communities, college education is free.

The declaration further states that one of the aims of education shall be to strengthen respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. How can this be done at Central High School? Or perhaps there is no need to do it because the pupils of Central High School have grown up in a democratic atmosphere where respect for human rights is learned as a part of normal daily living?

It is always dangerous to assume that specific understandings are the probable outcomes of unplanned life experiences. Americans have seen human rights disappear from enough countries where they were once respected to realize the tremendous difference which their observance or nonobservance makes in the life of a people. One need not read the history of seventeenth

century England to reconstruct a picture of society which demanded a *Bill of Rights* to protect its members from tyranny, of eighteenth century America to understand the grievances which called forth the *Declaration of Independence*, or of eighteenth century France to know the tyranny which called forth the *Declaration of the Rights of Man*. In our day the story of the struggle for human rights has been made more dramatic by the disappearance of these rights in countries where they were once established. Americans are coming to realize that there are many countries where democratic human rights have never existed. Even without the perspective of history, Americans now sense that human rights have been won by struggle and are maintained by eternal vigilance. In a matter which lies so close to the general welfare of all as does an understanding of and personal commitment to democratic human rights, can the Nation's schools put their trust in the vagaries of chance learning?

What then should be the nature of planned learning experiences which will lead to personal commitments to uphold and observe human rights for oneself and for others? We may begin with the dictum: Never underestimate man's intelligence; never overestimate the amount of information he has. The following areas of living are covered in the Declaration of Human Rights:

1. Rights as a person.
2. Rights as a member of a family.
3. Rights to education.
4. Rights as a worker.
5. Rights in court.
6. Rights in deciding where one shall live.
7. Rights to hold property.
8. Rights to receive and advocate ideas.

The following steps are suggested for studying the declaration:

1. Read the document carefully and list the rights described in it under the areas of living outlined above.

2. Which of the rights described in the document are of most value to each individual member of the class? The right to an education might seem of little value to a boy waiting impatiently for his sixteenth birthday when the law will permit him to quit school. Or the boy who has little interest at the moment in information and ideas might not place a high value

on his right "to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas."

3. What would life in this community be like if we did not have these rights? The answer to this question will suggest the conditions of life in those parts of the world where human rights have ceased to be, or have never been recognized.

4. To what extent is *each one* of these human rights accepted as an *inalienable right* in our community?

5. To what extent are human rights valued, observed, and defended in our school and community?

Religious leaders, philosophers, and democratic statesmen have always conceived of human rights as inalienable and universal. They viewed them as the natural birthright of all men in all places and held that they could neither be given nor taken away by states or other institutions of society. The history of the growth of human rights has been the greatest story of western civilization. Devotion to the principles of human rights may be increased when the long struggle which has preceded the writing of a *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* is understood.

TELEVISION FOR EDUCATION

(Continued from page 51)

no reputable educator who questions the superior effectiveness of teaching which makes judicious use of audio-visual aids.

It is, of course, true that basic instructional content has to be expressed in words, printed or oral. But everything which sharpens the meaning of the spoken or written word greatly facilitates the learning process. For example, a teacher might describe a cuttlefish as being very much like a squid except that it is larger and has no calcified internal shell. That is a very concise description; but it assumes that the student has already seen a squid, or a good picture of one; and unless the concept of a "calcified internal shell" is reasonably clear to him, the student is not likely to walk out of the classroom and recognize the first cuttlefish he meets or be able to distinguish it from a squid.

Education continues to rely primarily on the use of language. The more important intellectual processes of analysis, synthesis, invention, and projection operate chiefly with the use of verbal symbols. I am using verbal symbols to convey meanings to the Commission at this moment.

But the effectiveness of the symbols I am using depends in no small part upon the fact that the members of the Commission are already possessed of a full background of general and technical knowledge into which they quickly fit what I say. If, instead, I were talking to high-school freshmen, I could not use the words "very high frequency band" without stopping to give those words specific content. Yet, if, as I spoke, the high-school freshman saw before him a schematic chart representing the whole series of frequency bands and their use, several hours of laborious instruction could be condensed into a few minutes of intensive and pleasurable learning.

From this perspective, I make one comment on the comparative importance of sound broadcasting and of television for educational purposes. The principal limitation of the radio for educational purposes lies precisely in the fact that it is limited solely to sound. As an amplification, enrichment, or expansion of the instructor's effort, radio's spoken word is excellent. With the round-table discussion or effectively dramatized presentation, radio adds new effectiveness to verbal instruction. It brings variety and new dimensions of importance to the student's experience. I would in no way minimize the importance of radio as an educational device, and I would demur strongly if it were suggested that the educational potential of sound broadcasting is unimportant. At the same time, this serves only to emphasize the much greater potential importance of television broadcasting for educational purposes. Where radio uses only the ears, television uses both ears and eyes. Television's potential advantage over radio appears to be as great as sound-on-film over the silent motion picture.

The contrast may be extended. Just as radio has the great advantage of timeliness and immediacy over the phonograph, so television has this same advantage over the sound film. For some teaching situations, a library of recordings (say, of great music) is preferable to the radio because the things to be taught are not related to immediate moments of the passing parade of history. In such situations, the sound film is likewise highly usable. But just as the radio makes a contribution to education which the phonograph cannot make, so, too, television serves a purpose which the sound film can never accomplish. Timeliness is an element of interest which, in

the audio-visual field, can be served by television and only by television.

As I have said, television, like radio, has the advantage of timeliness and immediacy. Like motion-picture films it combines photographically accurate visual representations with animation to give living reality to the subject. But television's great contribution to education will be the combination of these advantages of timeliness, immediacy, and realism in one medium plus its ability to reach people without requiring their assembly in a classroom. While institutional use of television for educational purposes should not be minimized and should be very substantial, its anticipated use in community or extension education should be even greater.

These considerations lead me to suggest that it is vital to the continuous improvement of public education that every school system and college competent to produce educational television programs and financially able to construct and operate a station be assured that, when the time comes that it is ready to start construction of a television broadcast station, a suitable locally usable transmitting frequency will be available.

Firm Government Action

It is my belief that there is only one way to insure this desirable result: Firm Government action now to protect the future. It cannot be concluded from the present showing that access of educational institutions and systems to television channels should, for the future, be left to the accidents of competitive bidding between educational and commercial interests. History clearly demonstrates that the opening of a new frontier calls for a wise balance between the stimulus of private development and the permanent safeguarding of the public interest. I do not believe that it can be demonstrated that the public interest can be served best by permitting the entire field of television to be preempted for private and commercial purposes. The Federal Government has a clear responsibility to protect the future by holding open a modest opportunity in television for education. In view of what I have said, the present financial ability of educational institutions to build and operate television stations should not be considered decisive of the issue before the Commission.

Development of means and methods of instruction is and should be a gradual

process. Even if innovations in educational instruction on a substantial scale are financially feasible, educators cannot in good conscience experiment with the minds and lives of large numbers of American children by instituting such changes before they have been proven to be effective. Educators, and those who are responsible for financing of education, must plan and operate in terms of decades and generations rather than in terms of months or weeks. Even after an educational method has been accepted by the profession, the task remains of convincing the general public who must finance the innovation. Personnel must then be trained to apply the new methods or means of instruction. This process may be slow, but it does have the advantage of proceeding on a surer footing.

The fact that it takes a great deal of time to develop new means of instruction places educational institutions at a competitive disadvantage with commercial interests whenever the two begin to bid for access to facilities which are limited. Business enterprises enjoy the advantage of being able to move much more quickly than educational institutions in matters of this kind. This means that, if education is to make any use of any new medium of mass communication such as television, where the opportunities are strictly limited by the number of channels open in any particular broadcast area, Government must reserve that opportunity against the day of effective educational demand. I believe that evidence to be presented at this hearing will clearly establish that the leading educators of the country believe that television broadcasting is an appropriate and even necessary educational medium. It, therefore, becomes the obligation of the Government to take such action as will assure the educational institutions and systems that they will be given adequate opportunity to plan, construct, and operate television stations.

The experience of educators with radio reinforces the case for the educational use of television. In the early days of educational broadcasting of sound, a few hours a week provided about all the air time the average city school system or college could use to advantage. Over the years, however, the experience of educators in using radio under commercial management has brought unfavorable developments of which this Commission is fully aware. On the one hand, educational plans call for the production of more and more programs with

specific content, beamed at particular audiences, for special purposes. At the same time, commercial stations have been confronted with increasingly sharp competition for audiences. Moreover, educational plans frequently call for the development of integrated series of broadcasts. The managers and owners of commercial stations have, quite naturally I think, exhibited some reluctance to meet these increasing demands of education for broadcast time. The better the programs became for specific educational purposes, the more likely they were to jeopardize the sales value of the commercial station's time by limiting audience appeal. Inevitably, educators and commercial producers have pursued conflicting and increasingly incompatible objectives in programming. As educational demand for radio time increases, the time available for educational broadcasts on commercial stations decreases. Only the opening up of the frequency-modulation band has permitted an easing of this situation through the reservation of a series of channels in the FM band exclusively for educational broadcasting purposes.

Substantial Growth

There are now over 100 educational radio stations about evenly divided between universities and public school systems. Before the advent of FM, there were only 30 such stations. The more than 70 new ones represent substantial growth. Already one college-owned TV station is in operation, several others are actively engaged in planning stations, and some 50 others have evidenced their interest in establishing such stations.

In view of the greater costs of television installation and operation, the financial pressures on television station owners will be correspondingly greater. Any educator who has tried to get air time on a network radio station for a local school system or college will testify that it is next to impossible to get regular recurring broadcast time at hours most suitable for educational use. Therefore, we may expect commercial television station owners to be no less solicitous of their competitive audience appeal than sound broadcasters have been.

Television may be too costly at present to make it readily usable by the great majority of the institutions of higher education or public school systems, each acting independently. Cooperative programming by two or more educational institutions over a

single station appears to be one possible answer to the present difficulty.

Reflecting a realistic estimate of the immediate probabilities of educational television development, we suggest that it will probably be an adequate safeguard of the public interest in educational broadcasting to reserve one channel in the very high frequency band for educational purposes in each broadcast area in which the total number of usable channels has not already been assigned. Furthermore, the application by an educational institution for an unassigned commercial channel should be given preferential consideration by the Commission if the applicant can give reasonable assurance of present ability to provide a constructive educational program service. In those areas in which all usable channels are presently assigned for commercial purposes, the Commission is faced with a real problem in providing a locally usable very high frequency channel for assignment to educational institutions.

A more nearly comprehensive answer to the problem may possibly be found if and when actual television broadcast service in the ultrahigh-frequency band is established. If the public interest is to be served, allocation of the necessary channels in this band should be made and announced promptly so that, as the ultrahigh-frequency television broadcasting begins to open up, every school system or college which is financially able to construct and operate its own educational television broadcasting station, will be able to find a locally assignable operating frequency.

Two Recommendations

To safeguard the public interest, and to protect a great new medium of communication from being closed to the forces of education, which depend completely upon communication for their freedom, I, therefore, urge the Commission to give serious consideration to two recommendations: (1) That for the immediate situation, the Commission, in making all future assignments in the very high-frequency band, save at least one locally available and usable television broadcast frequency in each broadcast area for assignment, exclusively, to educational stations applicants; and (2) that an adequate number of channels in the ultrahigh-frequency band be set aside for assignment to educational stations against the day when broadcasting in that band begins.

CONGRESS ON EDUCATION

(Continued from page 55)

Federal Funds for School Operating Expenses, Public Law 874 (approved Sept. 30, 1950).—This act authorized for the fiscal year 1951 and 3 succeeding years Federal assistance for current operating expenses to local school districts ["local educational agencies"] upon which the United States has placed financial burdens by reason of the fact that—

- "(1) the revenues available to such agencies from local sources have been reduced as the result of the acquisition of real property by the United States; or
- "(2) such agencies provide education for children residing on Federal property; or
- "(3) such agencies provide education for children whose parents are employed on Federal property; or
- "(4) there has been a sudden and substantial increase in school attendance as the result of Federal activities."

Certain specific conditions are enumerated as a basis for eligibility of a school district for assistance with respect to each of the categories mentioned above.

The administration of this act is vested in the United States Commissioner of Education, who is empowered "to make such regulations and perform such other functions as he finds necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act." Responsibility is placed upon the Commissioner, after consultation with appropriate State and local educational agencies, for determining, in conformity with the provisions of the act, what local school districts are eligible for Federal assistance and the respective amounts thereof.

The act requires that all applications from local school districts for Federal aid be submitted through the respective State educational agency and filed in accordance with regulations of the Commissioner, which applications shall give adequate assurance that the local educational agency will submit such reports as the Commissioner may reasonably require to determine the amount to which such agency is entitled. Payments of Federal funds to assist any local school district, upon certification by the Commissioner of Education, are to be made quarterly to the Secretary of the Treasury, who shall pay to the local educational agency in accordance with said certification.

This act provides that if no tax revenue of a State or a local school district may be expended for children who reside on Federal property, or "if it is the judgment of the Commissioner," after consultation with the appropriate State educational agency, that no local educational agency is able to provide suitable free public education for children who reside on Federal property, the Commissioner shall make arrangements (other than for capital outlay) as may be necessary to provide free public education for such children.

For the purposes of carrying out the provisions of this act, the Commissioner of Education is authorized, pursuant to proper agreement with any other Federal agency, to utilize the services and facilities of such agency, and, when he deems it necessary or appropriate, to delegate to any officer thereof the function under section 6 of making arrangements for providing free public education to children residing on Federal property.

In the administration of this act it is specifically stipulated that "no department, agency, officer, or employee of the United States shall exercise any direction, supervision, or control over the personnel, curriculum, or program of instruction of any school or school system of any local or State educational agency."

In order to carry out the provisions of Public Law 874, Congress appropriated [Public Law 843] \$23,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1951.

Higher Educational Institutions

Public Law 475 (approved April 20, 1950).—This act, known as the "Housing Act of 1950," includes, among other things, assistance to educational institutions in providing housing facilities for their students and authorizes the Administrator of Federal Housing to make loans to such institutions for construction of such housing under certain conditions.

National Science Foundation

Public Law 507 (approved May 10, 1950).—This law is cited as the "National Science Foundation Act of 1950," designed to promote the progress of science, to advance the national health, prosperity, and welfare, and secure the national defense. It establishes in the Executive Branch of the Government an independent agency under the direction of a National Science

Board consisting of 24 members and a Director, all of whom shall be appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The National Science Foundation, among other things, is authorized to award, within the limit of funds available specifically therefor, scholarships and graduate fellowships for scientific study or scientific work in the mathematical, physical, medical, biological, engineering, and other sciences at accredited nonprofit American or nonprofit foreign institutions of higher education selected by the recipient of such aid, for stated periods of time. Persons so selected for scholarships and fellowships shall be citizens of the United States and selected on the basis of ability.

Veterans Education

Public Law 456 (approved March 10, 1950).—Extended the period for which employees of the Veterans Administration may be detailed for technical training in the fields of medical education, research, and relative sciences and occupations, and their proficiency in medical administrative techniques which will contribute to the medical care and training of veterans.

Public Law 571 (approved June 23, 1950).—This act provides that in the computation of estimated cost of teaching personnel and supplies for instruction of veterans in any college of agriculture and mechanic arts no reduction shall be made by reason of any payments to such college from funds made available pursuant to the Land-Grant College Act of July 2, 1862, and acts supplementary thereto. It further provides that in computing cost of teaching personnel and materials for instruction of veterans in nonprofit educational institutions, no reduction shall be made by reason of any payment to such institution from State or local public funds or from private endowments or other income from non-public sources.

Public Law 610 (approved July 13, 1950).—Clarifies the educational rights and privileges of veterans under Title II of the Veterans Readjustment Act (Public Law 346, 78th Cong., approved June 22, 1944), and also establishes certain standards governing the Administrator of Veterans Affairs in the approval of schools and courses for the purpose of training veterans. This act stipulates that "no regulation or other purported construction of Title II of the Servicemen's Readjustment

Act of 1944 shall be deemed consistent therewith which denies or is designed to deny to any eligible person, or limit any eligible person in his right to select such course or courses as he may desire, during the full period of his entitlement or remaining part thereof, in any approved educational or training institution, whether such courses are full-time, part-time or correspondence courses," subject, however, to certain exceptions.

Public Law 610, among other things, also provides that:

1. The Administrator of Veterans Affairs shall, except under certain conditions, disapprove a course in any institution other than a public or other tax-supported school which has been in operation for a period of less than 1 year immediately prior to the date of enrollment.

2. The Administrator may for reason satisfactory to him disapprove a change of course of instruction and may discontinue any course of education or training if he finds that the conduct or progress of such person (veteran) is unsatisfactory.

3. The Administrator shall refuse approval to certain courses which are avocational or recreational in character. Courses such as the following shall be presumed to be of such character: Dancing, photography, bartending, personality development, horseback riding, swimming, etc.

Vocational Education

Public Law 462 (approved March 18, 1950).—Extends the benefits of the Vocational Education Act of 1946 to the Virgin Islands upon substantially the same terms and conditions as to any of the States.

Public Law 740 (approved August 30, 1950).—Grants to the Future Farmers of America a Federal charter. Among the objects and purposes of the corporation are the following:

1. To create, foster, and assist subsidiary chapters composed of students and former students of vocational agriculture in public schools qualifying for Federal reimbursement under the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act and acts supplementary thereto.
2. To develop character, train for useful citizenship, foster patriotism, and develop aggressive rural and agricultural leadership.
3. To create and nurture a love of country life.
4. To encourage the practice of thrift.

Alaska and the District of Columbia

Public Law 727 (approved August 23, 1950).—Directs the Secretary of the Interior to convey certain abandoned school properties in the Territory of Alaska to local school districts.

Public Law 744 (approved August 31, 1950).—Governs the disposal of materials from reserved school section lands in Alaska and the disposition of the proceeds therefrom.

Public Law 588 (approved June 30, 1950).—Continues "until June 30, 1953, and no longer," nurseries and nursery schools for the day care of school-age and under-school-age children in the District of Columbia with certain amendments of the original Act.

Public Law 698 (approved August 16, 1950).—Authorizes the establishment of an educational agency for surplus property within the Government of the District of Columbia under the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, to carry out in the District the "State functions contemplated" by the Federal Property and Administrative Services Act of June 30, 1949, Public Law 152, Eighty-first Congress.

ROSTRUM AND PRESS

(Continued from page 54)

Security Agency, before the Social Studies Section of the Middle Tennessee Educational Association, Nashville, Tenn., October 20, 1950.



"How much time have we? Almost none, of course, for those young people at the age of induction, or about to leave school, or to be graduated. Yet some of these knowledges, skills, and attitudes will be more valuable as they are learned gradually and become part of the conditioning of each boy or girl . . ."

—Harry A. Jager, Division of Vocational Education, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, in article, *The School and Its Counselor in These Times*, prepared for the January 1951 issue of *Occupations, The Vocational Guidance Magazine*.



" . . . Education has made improvements in methods of working just as other professions have made improvements in their skills and technics. You can't do today's job with yesterday's tools and be in business tomorrow."

—Helen K. Mackintosh, Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, in article, *We Are Teaching the Three R's*, appearing in the *NEA Journal*, November 1950 issue.

☆ ☆ Education for the Nation's Defense—IV ☆ ☆

THERE HAVE BEEN many reports in recent months concerning difficulties in obtaining materials for the completion of school construction now under way and in awarding new contracts for school buildings, and the Office of Education has had numerous requests for information about what is being done to prevent further shortages. Because of these uncertainties, a committee of educators called on Administrator William H. Harrison of the National Production Authority on November 27 to present to him information concerning these difficulties and to determine, if possible, whether there is any prospect of an immediate improvement in this situation. Mr. Harrison pointed out that at present the only priorities being granted are for defense-related activities and he indicated that it was the expectation of the National Production Authority that general cut-backs in certain types of production and the prohibiting of nonessential construction would allow sufficient materials for all essential civilian activities. He indicated that the imposition of any controls regardless of the system would cause many temporary dislocations and that it would require several months for sufficient adjustment to take place to determine whether the plan will work as anticipated. He also stated that he desired to avoid any general imposition of a system of priorities and allocations until it can be determined whether the plan now in operation will work satisfactorily. Mr. Harrison assured the members of the committee that in the event of a general system of priorities, education would rank high on the list of essential activities.

It is obvious from the information supplied by Mr. Harrison that little can be done during this trial period, except on an individual basis, to relieve these difficulties which it is hoped will be temporary. Any change in the international situation could cause an immediate shift in the policy of the National Production Authority, but barring such a change it must be presumed that for the next several months school construction will pass through the same period of

shortages and difficulties as any other type of activity which requires essential materials. In the meantime, the Office of Education is making plans to assemble information which would be needed if it becomes necessary to define the requirements of education before any Federal agency which has the responsibility for allocating materials in short supply.

First Aid Training

An Office of Education Defense Information Bulletin of December 7, 1950, transmitted facts about first aid and home care of the sick. Said Commissioner of Education Earl James McGrath in disseminating this information:

"The National Security Resources Board has informed the Nation that there is a need for millions of people to be trained in first aid and home care of the sick, and has requested the American National Red Cross to assume the responsibility for this training. The Office of Education, the American Red Cross, and other interested educational organizations are cooperating in this undertaking where it involves schools and colleges and school and college personnel.

"The basic principles of first aid and home care of the sick are important for daily living, as well as for emergency needs, and might well be included in any educational program. The skills and information included in these courses are important to assure maximum self-help for individuals and to prepare individuals to help others. Many schools and colleges continuously carry on programs which include instruction in first aid and home care of the sick. Others will be motivated by present conditions immediately to initiate such programs or expand those already in existence.

"The American Red Cross is prepared to help provide the training, both pre-service and in-service, for teachers to give instruction in first aid and home care of the sick—the courses recommended by the National Security Resources Board. It seems desirable to move toward providing such assistance as quickly as opportunities for training can be made available. If cooperative

plans have not already been made for your State participation in this program, the American Red Cross will be glad to arrange for a representative to visit you."

Accompanying the Defense Information Bulletin on "First Aid and Home Care of the Sick" were two enclosures, one a suggested guide for meeting the problem of training school and college personnel, which was prepared cooperatively by the Office of Education, the American Red Cross, and other interested educational organizations. A second enclosure, a leaflet issued by the American Red Cross, describes its standard requirements and courses in first aid and home care of the sick. The guide presents the problem, offers suggested general principles for State programs, and discusses curriculum implications for secondary and elementary schools. The guide suggests that "local school officials may wish to reevaluate courses to determine whether they include adequate instruction in first aid and home nursing." It warns, however, that "care needs to be exercised so that instruction in these subjects will not be given at the expense of other equally important areas." Copies of the two enclosures mailed with this Defense Information Bulletin are available from the Division of Elementary and Secondary Schools, Office of Education.

Training Programs

A statement prepared jointly by the Bureau of Apprenticeship, the Bureau of Employment Security, and the Office of Education was issued on December 15, 1950, to clarify the situation with respect to training programs now in operation as related to national defense activities.

This statement pointed out that "until such time as the Congress passes legislation appropriating Federal funds for defense training, the relationships between the several agencies, as well as with employers, should continue as they have since the war training programs of World War II were liquidated."

The statement continued as follows: "However, it is recommended that vocational education authorities, institutions of higher learning, representatives of the Bureau of Apprenticeship, and the State Employment Services cooperate closely in determining the needs for various types of training which can be provided from existing facilities."

The statement explained that "The United

States Department of Labor and the Federal Security Agency are currently developing a cooperative agreement between the two agencies which will be effective when Federal defense training funds are available, together with appropriate rules, regulations, procedures, and forms to be used in that connection.

It was further pointed out that "Regular training funds are being used to an increas-

ing extent in supplying training that is needed to assure defense production. In this connection, the Bureau of Employment Security and the affiliated State and local Employment Service offices should furnish to each of the above-mentioned training agencies all labor market supply-demand information, on a regular basis, which is pertinent to the planning of training needed in the defense effort."

Aids to Education—By Sight and Sound

by Gertrude G. Broderick, Radio Education Specialist, and Seerley Reid, Assistant Chief, Visual Aids to Education

Recordings

Document A/777. A recent addition to the library of the Script and Transcription Exchange, Office of Education, includes a recorded program which deals with the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights. Produced by United Nations Radio, the 60-minute program presents in dramatic form some of the ideas set forth in the authorized text of the Declaration, as adopted by the United Nations on December 10, 1948. Written by Norman Corwin, the program features a galaxy of prominent national and international stars from stage, screen, and radio. Because of its authenticity it offers excellent material for reference and study. It may be borrowed from the Exchange for the customary 2-week period.

This Is the UN. A timely album of phonograph records has just been released by Tribune Productions, 40 East Forty-ninth Street, New York City. Prepared especially as a teaching aid for high-school and college students, the programs tell the history of the formation, aims, principles, and achievements of the United Nations for the years 1945–50. Except for the narrator, film star Franchot Tone, all voices are those of actual participants in events having a direct relationship to the UN, not only at Lake Success but throughout the world. Programs were produced under supervision of the UN Department of Public Information. Manuals for teachers and discussion leaders accompany the records. Albums are obtainable in either 78 r. p. m. (standard) at \$15 or 33½ r. p. m. (long playing) at \$12. Orders should be directed to Tribune Productions, 40 East Forty-ninth Street, New York 17, N. Y.

Annotated List of Phonograph Records. To aid teachers in the selection and purchase of phonograph records for classroom use, the Children's Reading Service, 106 Beekman Street, New York 7, N. Y., has just published its first catalog. Edited by Dr. Warren S. Freeman, Dean of the College of Music of Boston University, the catalog presents some 500 chosen records, arranged by subject areas and grade groups. They are listed not only for music, but for language arts, science, and social studies. Copies may be ordered through the Children's Reading Service for 10 cents each.

Radio Programs

The FREC fall quarter list of *Selected Network Radio Programs for Student Listening* contains 66 radio programs for possible assigned listening. Essentially a service for teachers, the programs are selected on a broad educational basis involving educational significance, program quality, and instructional adaptability. Each program is briefly annotated so as to provide teachers with sufficient information concerning the nature of a program to determine whether it might be useful as a teaching aid. Free copies are available on request to the Script and Transcription Exchange, Office of Education.

Films

Army Films on Korea. The Department of the Army has recently released three 16mm sound films portraying and explaining the Korean War. Prints can be borrowed from Signal Corps film libraries, rented from some 16mm film libraries, or

purchased from United World Films Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, N. Y. The three films, with sales prices, are:

Our Stand in Korea

Background, reasons, and early days of the Korean War (22 minutes, \$28.56).

Battle for Time

Daily record of the Korean War from July 10 to August 8, the "battle for time." Maps (13 minutes, \$17.67).

The First Forty Days

Tribute to American and South Korean soldiers who fought against 10 to 1 odds during the first 8 weeks of the war (24 minutes, \$30.84).

The United Nations in World Disputes

This is the title of a new Army film which reviews four major achievements of the United Nations in settling disputes that have threatened world peace—in Indonesia, Palestine, India, and Korea. The film is 16mm sound, black-and-white, and runs 21 minutes. Prints can be purchased from United World Films (price: \$27.12) or rented from some 16mm film libraries.

Other Army Films. Three other Army films have been released for public educational use, and 16mm prints can be purchased from United World Films at the prices indicated below.

The Big Wheel

History of the 35th Infantry Division (17 minutes, \$22.83).

Communism

History of Communism, its totalitarian characteristics, and how Communists operate in the United States (32 minutes, \$38.72).

Education for Peace

Work of the American Friends Service Committee (11 minutes, \$14.97).

New Books and Pamphlets

Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library.

Accident Facts, 1950 Edition. Prepared by the Statistical Division of the National Safety Council. Chicago, National Safety Council, 1950. 96 p. 60 cents.

Camping: A Guide to Outdoor Safety and Comfort. By Arthur H. DesGrey. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1950. 171 p. Illus. \$3.

A Decade of Court Decisions on Teacher Retirement, 1940-1949, Inclusive. By Research Division and National Council on Teacher Retirement. Washington, D. C., National Education Association of the United States, 1950. 29 p. 25 cents.

Elementary-School Student Teaching. By Raleigh Schorling and G. Max Wingo. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950. 452 p. Illus. \$3.75.

The Elements of Research. By Frederick Lamson Whitney. Third Edition. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. 539 p. (Prentice-Hall Education Series.) \$5.

How Science Teachers Use Business-Sponsored Teaching Aids. Report of a Study Made by the Advisory Council on Industry-Science Teaching Relations of the National Science Teachers Association. Washington, D. C., National Science Teachers Association, 1950. 36 p. \$1.

Manual for the Study of School District Organization by County Committees. Sacramento, California State Department of Education, 1950. 64 p.

The Nature of the Administrative Process With Special Reference to Public School Administration. By Jesse B. Sears. First

Edition. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950. 623 p. \$5.

Public Opinion and Political Dynamics. By Marbury Bladen Ogle, Jr. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1950. 362 p. \$3.50.

Radio Plays for Young People: Fifteen Great Stories Adapted for Royalty-Free Performance. By Walter Hackett. Boston, Plays, Inc., 1950. 277 p. \$2.75.

Selected Films for Teacher Education; A Bibliography. By Nicholas A. Fattu and Beryl B. Blain. Bloomington, Ind., School of Education, Indiana University, 1950. 82 p. \$1.50.

What Do We Know About Our Schools? New York, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools (2 West 45th St.), 1950. 34 p.

Selected Theses in Education

Ruth G. Strawbridge, Bibliographer, Federal Security Agency Library.

THESE THESES are on file in the Education collection of the Federal Security Agency Library where they are available for interlibrary loan.

Comparative Progress of Kindergarten and Non-Kindergarten Pupils in the East Chicago Public Schools. By Geneva A. Ross. Master's, 1950. Indiana State Teachers College. 58 p. ms.

General Principles of School Law Pertaining to Teaching Personnel in the Public

Schools of New York City. By Maurice Nadler. Doctor's, 1948. New York University. 135p. ms.

Methods in Vocational Business Education. By Harm Harms. Doctor's, 1949. Teachers College, Columbia University. 334 p.

The Organization of Mental Abilities in the Age Range 13 to 17. By Jerome E. Doppelt. Doctor's, 1949. Teachers College, Columbia University. 86 p.

Out-of-School Radio-Listening Interests of Senior High-School Pupils. By Margaret Nicholson. Master's, 1948. Boston University. 78 p. ms.

Parents and Teachers View the Child. A Comparative Study of Parents' and Teachers' Appraisals of Children. By Charlotte F. Del Solar. Doctor's, 1949. Teachers College, Columbia University. 119 p.

The Relationship Between Information and Attitudes of High School Students on Certain International Issues. By Benjamin Shimberg. Master's, 1949. Purdue University. 40 p.

A Unit of Work in Human Relations for the Teacher of Senior High School Pupils. By Virginia M. M. Juergens. Master's, 1948. University of Cincinnati. 109 p. ms.

The Use of Group Participation in the Development of School Health Programs and Policies. By Owen McWhorter. Doctor's, 1949. Harvard University. 292 p. ms.

What Children Like in Elementary Principals. By Rene R. Mathieu. Master's, 1949. Boston University. 68 p. ms.

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